



The dual-active-site tandem catalyst containing Ru single atoms and Ni nanoparticles boosts CO₂ methanation

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ABSTRACT

Hydrogenation of CO₂ into CH₄ is an effective strategy for dealing with CO₂-relevant environmental problems. Since the CO₂ methanation reaction involves multiple electron transfers and various C1 intermediates, improving the reaction rate at each step is critical to accelerating the entire reaction. Here, we report a dual-active-site tandem catalyst (Ru₁Ni/CeO₂) composed of Ru single atoms (Ru₁) and Ni nanoparticles, which can effectively convert CO₂ to CH₄, showing ~90% CO₂ conversion and ~99% CH₄ selectivity at 325 °C, much higher than those of the Ru₁/CeO₂ and Ni/CeO₂ catalysts. Experimental and theoretical calculation results reveal that Ru₁ is extremely active for converting CO₂ to CO, while the Ni site is highly efficient for the subsequent sequential CO to CH₄ reaction step. The coexistence of the Ru₁ and Ni sites significantly boosts the overall reaction. This work offers a promising strategy for the rational design of efficient multisite tandem catalysts.

1. Introduction

Directly converting CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion into high-value-added products can address environmental problems and the energy crisis [1–5]. In particular, reducing CO₂ to CH₄ at atmospheric pressure is attractive [6]. Compared to the electro-reduction and photo-reduction of CO₂ to CH₄ [7–9], the thermal-reduction catalytic process (CO₂ methanation) with the higher one-way CO₂ conversion and CH₄ selectivity remains the most promising approach for industrial application.

For the CO₂ methanation reaction, the eight proton-electron coupling transfer process (CO₂ + 8 H⁺ + 8 e[−] → CH₄ + 2 H₂O) limits its reaction rate [10]. Several strategies to facilitate this process through catalyst design and modification have been reported, including catalyst

doping or morphological engineering to increase the oxygen vacancy concentration [11,12], adding basic oxides to increase the number of basic sites [13], or adding electron-based additives to modulate the internal electric field [14]. However, most of these strategies focus on improving CO₂ adsorption and activation, while the impact of post-activation reaction steps is not paid enough attention. The CO₂ methanation reaction involves several reaction steps generating multiple intermediates such as CO*, *CHO, *CH₂O, etc. [15]. The formation and conversion of these intermediates strongly affect the reaction rate of CO₂ methanation. In such complex tandem reactions, supported metal catalysts with a single specified active-site structure may not provide optimal catalytic reactivity for all steps of a multi-step reaction process, thus requiring new catalyst design strategies [16].

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Various low-cost Ni-based catalysts with Ni nanoparticles as active sites have been reported for CO and CO₂ methanation, including Ni/Al₂O₃ [17,18], Ni/SiO₂ [18,19], Ni/TiO₂ [20], Ni/CeO₂ [21], Ni/MgO [22], Ni/CNTs [23], and Ni/ZrO₂ [24]. Some reports have demonstrated that Ni-based catalysts are more active toward CO methanation than CO₂ methanation [25–27]. Therefore, reducing CO₂ to CO and then forming CH₄ on Ni sites may improve catalytic performance.

On the other hand, Ru-based catalysts also are efficient for CO₂ methanation [28–30], and the addition of low amounts of Ru to Ni catalysts reduces the Ni particle size and improves the reduction of NiO as well as the adsorption of H₂, thus lead to excellent catalytic performance for CO₂ methanation [31–33]. However, their high cost limits their practical application [34]. Improving metal utilization efficiency to reduce metal loading is an effective solution to this issue [35]. For example, the Ru single-atom catalysts (SACs) of Ru(SA)/CeO₂ showed a high CO₂ activation capacity, with a TOF_{CO₂} of $4.59 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at 190 °C, almost 8.7 times higher than the TOF_{CO₂} of Ru(NP)/CeO₂ [36]. However, it was reported that Ru single atoms supported on Al₂O₃ and CeO₂ are highly selective for the reverse water gas shift (RWGS) due to a weaker binding to CO than Ru NPs, which is more favorable for CO desorption [37]. Therefore, adding Ru single atoms to Ni-based catalysts to form a dual active site tandem catalyst may improve the CO₂ methanation reaction rate.

Tandem catalysts have been applied to the photo-reduction and electro-reduction of CO₂ to CH₄ [38–41]. Li and co-authors presented a novel tandem electrocatalyst comprising a single-atom Ir₁-doped hybrid Cu₃N/Cu₂O multisite that efficiently converted CO₂ to CH₄ [8]. Zheng et al. constructed synergistic Pd₁ and Pd NPs on graphitic carbon nitride to realize a high selectivity of 97.8% with a yield of 20.3 μmol g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹ for the photoreduction of CO₂ to CH₄ [42]. However, no research has been reported on thermal catalytic CO₂ methanation by tandem catalysts.

In this work, we successfully constructed a dual-functional site tandem catalyst with Ru single atoms and Ni nanoparticles, which are supported on CeO₂ nanorods (Ru₁Ni/CeO₂) for CO₂ methanation. It is noted that the preparation of this catalyst does not involve complicated synthesis procedures, toxic or expensive chemicals, and harsh treatment conditions. The abundant oxygen vacancies on the surface of CeO₂ nanorods and the high affinity of their surface lattice oxygen atoms are helpful for the formation and stabilization of single Ru atoms, especially under calcination and reducing atmospheres [43]. The Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ catalyst shows higher activity for CO₂ methanation than the Ru₁/CeO₂ and Ni/CeO₂ catalysts. This is because CO₂ dissociation to CO first occurred on Ru₁ active sites, and subsequently, CO were prone to desorb from Ru₁. Simultaneously, Ni with good CO affinity could further optimize the *CO to *CHO route to release CH₄. It thereby promotes the tandem pathways from the optimization of CO₂ dissociation to the thermodynamic limit of forming *CHO and achieves superior CO₂ methanation. In addition, density functional theory (DFT) calculations further revealed that the adjacent Ru₁ and Ni reduced the energy barrier for CO₂ to *CHO, thus making the CO₂ methanation reaction easier. Our work provides a new design strategy for catalyzing and accelerating CO₂ methanation.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Chemicals and materials

Nickel nitrate hexahydrate (Ni(NO₃)₂·6H₂O) and cerium nitrate hexahydrate (Ce(NO₃)₃·6H₂O) were purchased from Shanghai Aladdin Biochemical Technology Co., Ltd. Sodium hydroxide (NaOH), ethanol, and ruthenium chloride hydrate (RuCl₃·H₂O) were purchased from Shanghai Macklin Biochemical Co., Ltd., China and all the chemicals used without further purification.

2.2. Synthesis of materials

2.2.1. Synthesis of CeO₂ material

Synthesis of CeO₂ nanorods: CeO₂ nanorods were prepared using a conventional hydrothermal method based on a previous report [43]. Ce(NO₃)₃·6H₂O (1.73 g) and NaOH (19.20 g) were dissolved in 10 mL and 70 mL of deionized water, respectively. The Ce³⁺ salt solution was dropped into the NaOH solution under vigorous stirring. After stirring for 30 min, the slurry was transferred to an autoclave and maintained at 100 °C for 24 h. The solid was separated by centrifugation, washed three times with deionized water, dried overnight at 50 °C, and calcined at 400 °C in air for 1 h (heating rate of 5 °C min⁻¹).

2.2.2. Synthesis of catalysts

Synthesis of Ru₁/CeO₂ nanorods: a mixture of Ce(NO₃)₃·6H₂O (1.73 g) and RuCl₃·H₂O (0.01 g), and NaOH (19.20 g) were dissolved in 10 mL and 70 mL of deionized water, respectively. The salt solution (Ru³⁺ and Ce³⁺) was dropped into the NaOH solution under vigorous stirring. After being stirred for 30 min, the slurry was transferred to an autoclave and maintained at 100 °C for 24 h. The solid was separated by centrifugation, washed three times with deionized water, dried overnight at 50 °C, and calcined at 400 °C in air for 1 h (heating rate of 5 °C min⁻¹) followed by reduction at 400 °C in pure H₂ for 1 h (heating rate of 5 °C min⁻¹, H₂ flowing rate of 100 mL min⁻¹). This catalyst was denoted Ru₁/CeO₂ with a Ru loading of 0.91 wt% determined by inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES).

Synthesis of 5 wt% Ni/CeO₂ and 5 wt% NiRu₁/CeO₂: Ni(NO₃)₂·6H₂O (0.08 g) was dissolved into 50 mL of ethanol, then CeO₂ or Ru₁/CeO₂ powder (3.00 g) was added to the above solution. The mixture was stirred at 50 °C until ethanol evaporated and then calcined at 400 °C for 1 h after dried at 50 °C overnight. These catalysts were denoted Ni/CeO₂ and Ru₁Ni/CeO₂. The mixture was stirred at 50 °C until the ethanol evaporated, then calcined at 400 °C for 1 h, followed by reduction at 400 °C in pure H₂ for 1 h (heating rate of 5 °C min⁻¹, H₂ flowing rate of 100 mL min⁻¹).

Synthesis of the Ru₁/CeO₂ + Ni/CeO₂ mixed catalyst: above obtained Ni/CeO₂ (0.10 g) and Ru₁/CeO₂ (0.10 g) were mixed well with a mortar and pestle.

2.3. Characterization

N₂ adsorption/desorption isotherms were measured using a surface area and pore size analyzer (Quantachrome, NOVA 3200e). The specific surface area was determined according to the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) method in the relative pressure range of 0.05 – 0.20. The samples were degassed at 300 °C for 4 h and analyzed at –196 °C. X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were measured on a PANalytical X'Pert PRO MPD using Cu K_α radiation (λ = 1.5418 Å) at 40 kV and 40 mA, and compared with the standard XRD patterns in the database of the Joint Committee on Powder Diffraction Standards (JCPDS). The crystal size of the sample was calculated using the Debye-Scherrer equation. Bright-field transmission electron microscopy (BF-TEM) images were measured using a JEM-2010 F transmission electron microscope (JEOL, Japan) under a working voltage of 200 kV. Thermogravimetric (TG) analysis was conducted on a Seiko Instruments EXSTAR TG/DTA 6300. 10 mg of the sample was used and heated under air (200 mL min⁻¹) from room temperature up to 900 °C (10 °C min⁻¹). The aberration-corrected (AC) HAADF-STEM images were obtained on aberration-corrected high-angle annular dark-field scanning transmission electron microscopy (FEI-Titan Cubed Themis G2 300, Netherlands). The extended X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS) measurements at lower potentials at BL14W1 were carried out at the Shanghai Synchrotron Radiation Facility (SSRF). XAS data were analyzed using the IFEFFIT package, in which energy calibration to respective metal foils and spectral normalization were performed using Athena software [44]. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) spectra were recorded using a Kratos Axis Ultra

spectrometer employing nonmonochromatized Al K α radiation (1486.6 eV) operated at 15 kV and 20 mA under pressure below 10^{-9} Pa to analyze the valence of each element. H₂ temperature-programmed reduction (H₂-TPR) and H₂ temperature-programmed desorption (H₂-TPD) experiments were carried out on a Quanta chrome Automated chemisorption analyzer (chemBET pulsar TPR/TPD). For H₂-TPR, a 0.05 g sample was loaded in a quartz U-tube, heated from room temperature to 200 °C at 10 °C min⁻¹ and maintained for 1 h under He flow. Then, the sample was cooled to room temperature and heated to 800 °C at 10 °C min⁻¹ under binary gas (10.0 vol% H₂/Ar) with a gas flow of 30 mL min⁻¹. For H₂-TPD, 0.05 g catalyst was used and reduced in situ at 400 °C for 1 h by H₂/Ar flow. Then, the sample was cooled to room temperature and saturated with H₂. After removing the physically adsorbed H₂ by purging with Ar for 2 h, the sample was heated to 600 °C with a ramping rate of 10 °C min⁻¹ in an Ar flow (30 mL min⁻¹). The consumed or desorbed H₂ was detected continuously as a function of the increasing temperature using a thermal conductivity detector (TCD).

Raman spectra were recorded from 100 to 1500 cm⁻¹ on a Renishaw inVia Raman spectrometer with an excitation wavelength of 532 nm and laser power of 5 mW.

Fourier transform infrared spectra (FT-IR) were taken on a Tensor 27 spectrometer (Bruker). In situ diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (In situ DRIFTS) experiments were performed to detect the intermediate species adsorbed on the catalyst in the CO₂ methanation reaction. In situ DRIFTS spectra were continuously collected using a Nicolet IS50 spectrometer equipped with an MCT detector cooled by liquid nitrogen. Before the test, the catalyst was first reduced in H₂ flow (60 mL min⁻¹) at 400 °C for 1 h. Then, 10 mg of the reduced sample [m (catalyst): m(KBr) = 1:10] was placed on the sample holder at the center of the cell. The test conditions were the atmosphere of the simulated real reaction process. Then, an H₂/CO₂ (molar ratio of 4) mixture was introduced and heated to 400 °C at a heating rate of 10 °C min⁻¹. The spectra were collected by recording each scan every 7 s from 600 to 4000 cm⁻¹ with a resolution of 0.9 cm⁻¹.

2.4. Catalytic measurement

The catalytic activity test was carried out in a fixed bed reactor equipped with a quartz tube (I.D. 8 mm) at 0.1 MPa, in which the thermocouple was inserted into the furnace chamber to control the reaction temperature. Additionally, to avoid the influence of heat transfer, the catalyst (catalyst diluted with quartz sand with a length of ca. 6 cm) was placed in the flat-temperature zone (ca. 10 cm) of the furnace, and the addition of the quartz sand was to avoid the generation of hotspots in the catalyst bed. Moreover, another thermocouple was inserted into the catalyst bed with a casing pipe to measure its temperature. These measures were combined to eliminate the influences of mass and heat transfers in the catalytic tests. For the activity test, typically, 0.1 g catalyst (20–40 mesh) diluted with 5.0 g quartz sand (20–40 mesh) was uploaded to a quartz tube with a height of ca. 6 cm, and the gas flow rate was 50 mL min⁻¹, corresponding to a weight hourly space velocity of 30000 mL g⁻¹ h⁻¹. First, the catalyst was reduced at 400 °C in pure H₂ (100 mL min⁻¹) for 1 h and then cooled to the starting reaction temperature in H₂. Then, the mixed CO₂ and H₂, as well as N₂ (as an internal standard), were introduced into the reactor at a molar ratio of CO₂/H₂/N₂ = 9/36/5 (50 mL min⁻¹ to investigate the catalytic activity of catalysts at 225–400 °C. The temperature-programmed heating rate was 5 °C min⁻¹ in the total temperature range, and to obtain a steady state result at each temperature point before the product analysis, the reaction temperature was maintained for 1 h. Both the inlet and outlet gases were analyzed online by a Micro GC 3000 A (Fusion, INFICON) equipped with a TCD. In addition, a 100 h lifetime test of CO₂ methanation was performed at 300 °C, 0.1 MPa, and 30000 mL g⁻¹ h⁻¹. The CO₂ conversion, CH₄ selectivity, and CH₄ yield are defined as follows [45]:

$$\text{CO}_2\text{conversion} : X_{\text{CO}_2} = \frac{V_{\text{CO}_2,\text{in}} - V_{\text{CO}_2,\text{out}}}{V_{\text{CO}_2,\text{in}}} \times 100\% \quad (1)$$

$$\text{CH}_4\text{selectivity} : S_{\text{CH}_4} = \frac{V_{\text{CH}_4,\text{out}}}{V_{\text{CO}_2,\text{in}} - V_{\text{CO}_2,\text{out}}} \times 100\% \quad (2)$$

$$\text{CH}_4\text{yield} : Y_{\text{CH}_4} = \frac{V_{\text{CH}_4,\text{out}}}{V_{\text{CO}_2,\text{in}}} \times 100\% \quad (3)$$

where X is the conversion of CO₂, S is the selectivity of CH₄, Y is the CH₄ yield, $V_{\text{CO}_2,\text{in}}$ and $V_{\text{CO}_2,\text{out}}$ are the volume flow rates of CO₂ at the inlet and outlet of the reactor at standard temperature and pressure (STP), mL min⁻¹.

The normalized reaction rate and activation energy for CO₂ methanation over the catalysts were measured at 0.1 MPa with a catalyst loading of 0.1 g (20–40 mesh) diluted with 5.0 g quartz sand (20–40 mesh). The experiments were performed at different total gas flow rates of 25, 50, and 100 mL min⁻¹ at 200, 210, 220, and 230 °C to maintain CO₂ conversion in the 2–20% range. The activation energy was calculated using the Arrhenius equation. The activity was determined using the following equation [45]:

$$\text{Activity} = \frac{X_{\text{CO}_2} \times M_{\text{CO}_2,\text{in}}}{m_{\text{cat}} \times \omega_{\text{metal}} \times \Delta t} \quad (4)$$

where X_{CO_2} is the conversion of CO₂, $M_{\text{CO}_2,\text{in}}$ represents the moles of CO₂ at the inlet, and ω_{metal} is the metal loading, as well as m_{cat} is the mass of catalyst.

2.5. Computational detail

All the density functional theory (DFT) calculations were performed through the Vienna ab initio simulation package (VASP) [46,47]. The core electrons were treated with the projector augmented-wave (PAW) pseudopotentials. The exchange-correlation function was described by generalized gradient approximation (GGA) using Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) function [48]. The van der Waals interactions were corrected by the DFT-D3 method [49]. The plane-wave cutoff energy was set as 450 eV, the Monkhorst-Pack k-point was set as $2 \times 2 \times 1$, and the $U_{\text{eff}} = 5.0$ eV was applied to the Ce 4 f states [50]. The convergence criterion for the geometric relaxation was 0.02 eV/Å. The transition states for all the elementary reactions were searched using the CI-NEB method [51]. The adsorption energy was calculated using the following equation: $E_{\text{ads}} = E_{\text{gas/surf}} - (E_{\text{gas}} + E_{\text{surf}})$. The $E_{\text{gas/surf}}$ represents the energy of the whole adsorbed system, E_{gas} represents the energy of a free molecule in the gas phase, and E_{surf} represents the energy of an independent catalyst surface. The reaction barrier was calculated using the subsequent equation: $E_a = E_{\text{TS}} - E_r$. The E_{TS} and E_r represent the energies of transition states and reactants, respectively.

The model of the Ni10 cluster was built based on previous research [52]. The CeO₂ (111) was modeled using a (4×4) supercell containing four atomic layers. And the atoms in the bottom two layers were fixed, while the rest of the atoms were relaxed. The vacuum region was set as 15 Å. Afterwards, the Ru single atom or Ni10 cluster was loaded on the CeO₂ (111) surface, as shown in Fig. S1.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Characterization of the catalysts

3.1.1. XRD, BET, H₂-TPR, and H₂-TPD analysis

Rod-like CeO₂ support and Ru₁/CeO₂ catalyst were prepared via a hydrothermal method. Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ and Ni/CeO₂ catalysts were further prepared by the impregnation method followed by H₂ reduction using Ru₁/CeO₂ and Rod-like CeO₂ as supports, respectively. In Fig. 1a, the XRD peaks observed for the catalysts and CeO₂ support with 2θ of 28.54,

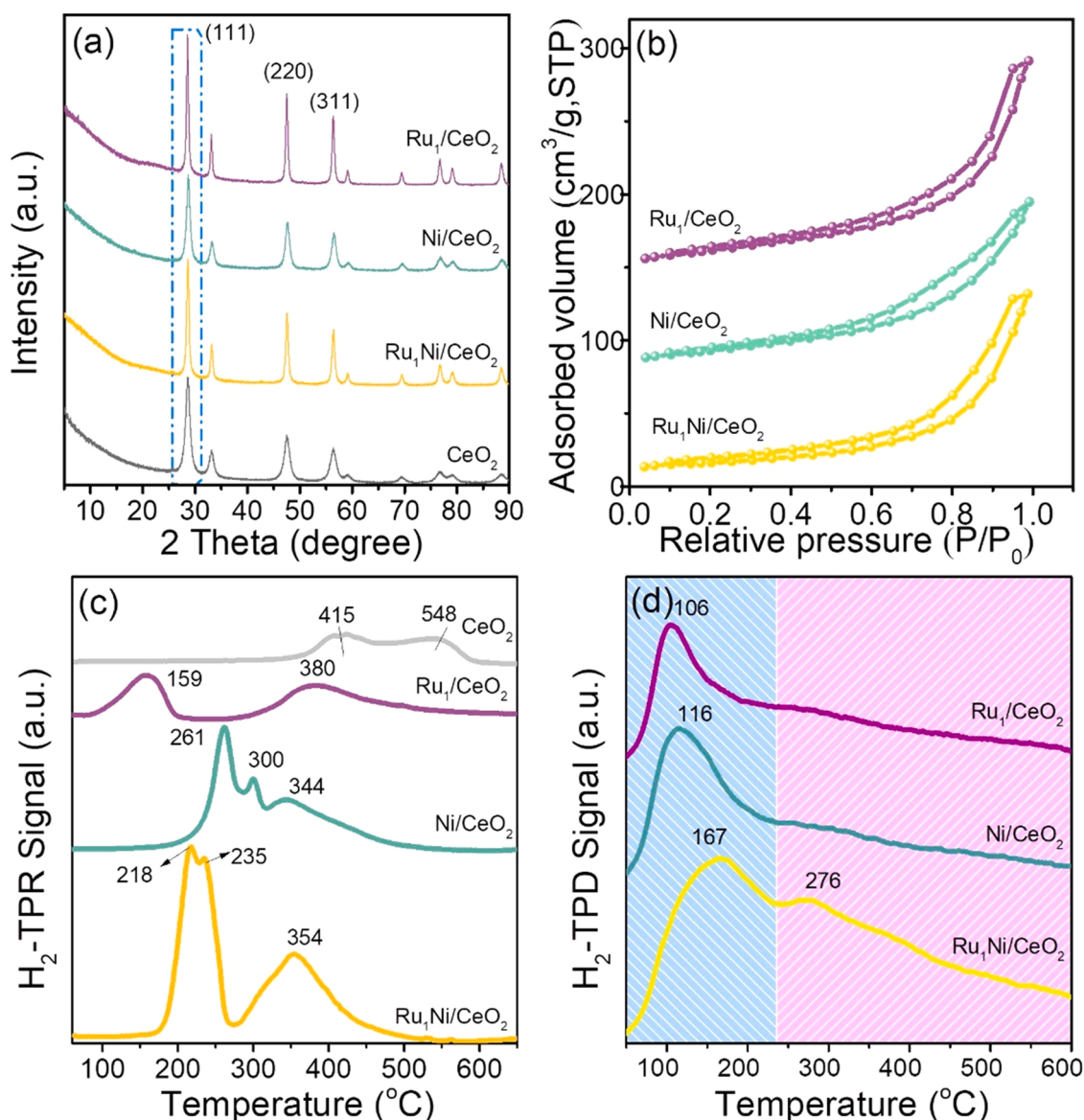


Fig. 1. (a) XRD patterns, (b) N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms, (c) H₂-TPR, and (d) H₂-TPD profiles of all the catalysts.

47.52, and 56.38° are indexed to the (111), (220), and (311) planes of CeO₂ with the typical fluorite structure (JCPDS 43–1002) [53]. No characteristic diffraction peaks belonging to Ni and Ru could be detected due to their low loadings or small nanocrystals. Ru₁/CeO₂, Ni/CeO₂, and Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ exhibit type IV N₂ adsorption isotherms with an H3-type

Table 1
Physiochemical properties of the all catalysts.

Samples	S _{BET} ^a (m ² g ⁻¹)	V _p ^b (cm ³ g ⁻¹)	H ₂ uptake ^c (μmol g ⁻¹)	O _{ads} / (O _{ads} + O _{latt}) molar ratio (%)	Ce ³⁺ / (Ce ³⁺ + Ce ⁴⁺) molar ratio (%)	I _D /I _{F2g} ratio (%)
Ru ₁ /CeO ₂	72.6	0.23	155.8	39.4	15.4	10.7
Ni/CeO ₂	71.1	0.19	174.8	41.1	18.5	39.1
Ru ₁ Ni/CeO ₂	67.9	0.20	355.0	57.7	22.3	44.8

^a Surface area, derived from BET equation.

^b Pore volume, obtained from the volume of nitrogen adsorbed at the relative pressure of 0.99.

^c H₂ uptake, calculated based on the H₂-TPD results.

hysteresis loop (Fig. 1b) and similar surface area and pore volume (Table 1).

Fig. 1c shows the H₂-TPR profiles of all the catalysts and CeO₂ support. For the CeO₂ support, two reduction peaks are observed at about 415 and 548 °C, ascribed to the release of surface and subsurface oxygen on CeO₂ through reducing the associated Ce⁴⁺ to Ce³⁺ [54]. For Ru₁/CeO₂, the new peak at ~159 °C can be assigned to remove the reactive surface oxygen on CeO₂ and RuO_x to metallic Ru [36]. In addition, the peak at 380 °C due to the reduction of Ce⁴⁺ is significantly lower than the reduction temperature of normal CeO₂, probably caused by the H-spillover effect [36]. For Ni/CeO₂, three main peaks at 261 °C, 300 °C, and around 344 °C are observed, attributed to the NiO species with weak, moderate, and strong interactions with the CeO₂ support [55], respectively. For Ru₁Ni/CeO₂, the observed peaks at 218 °C and 235 °C are attributed to the reduction of the RuO_x species to metallic Ru and NiO species to metallic Ni, respectively. In contrast, the peak at 354 °C is attributed to the reduction of Ce⁴⁺ to Ce³⁺ associated with the surface oxygen species. The reduction temperature of RuO_x to metallic Ru is gradually increased from 159 °C in Ru₁/CeO₂ to 218 °C in Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ due to the twice calcination of the latter at 400 °C, which increased the interactions between Ru and CeO₂. Compared with the

peak at 261 °C in Ni/CeO₂, this reduction peak of Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ shifts to 235 °C, indicating that adding Ru₁ species can improve the reducibility of the NiO species through hydrogen dissociation and the spill-over mechanism [56]. Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ has a more substantial peak at 350 °C than Ni/CeO₂, indicating the former has more oxygen vacancies [11], or more Ce⁴⁺ can be reduced to Ce³⁺ than the latter. The results will be further discussed in the XPS and Raman characterization sections. Fig. 1d shows the H₂-TPD profiles of all the catalysts. The low-temperature desorption peaks at around 50–240 °C are attributed to the hydrogen adsorbed on the active metal species. The broad peaks from 240 to 600 °C are adsorbed hydrogen on the CeO₂ supports. Probably part of them was spilled over from the active metal sites to the support [36]. Among all the catalysts, Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ shows the highest H₂ uptake of 355.0 μmol g⁻¹ (Table 1), indicating that the simultaneous presence of Ni particles and Ru single atoms could slightly improve the chemisorption capacity of H₂.

3.1.2. XPS and Raman analysis

The O 1s spectra are deconvoluted into two peaks, as shown in Fig. 2a. The main peak at ~528.76 eV can be assigned to lattice oxygen (O_{lattice}), while that at ~530.80 eV is attributed to surface-adsorbed

oxygen (O_{ads}). [57] The surface O_{ads}/(O_{ads} + O_{lattice}) molar ratios are also calculated and summarized in Table 1 through quantitative analyses of the O 1s XPS spectra. The O_{ads}/(O_{ads} + O_{lattice}) ratio is 39.4% for Ru₁/CeO₂, 41.1% for Ni/CeO₂, and 57.7% for Ru₁Ni/CeO₂, suggesting that Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ has more oxygen vacancies and, thus, more active adsorbed oxygen species. For the complex Ce 3d XPS spectra, each one is numerically deconvoluted into eight components (Fig. 2b). The six peaks at 881.94, 888.13, 897.72, 898.30, 900.36, 906.97, and 916.15 eV are assigned to surface Ce⁴⁺, and the other two peaks at 884.00 and 901.93 eV to surface Ce³⁺ [58]. The calculated ratios of the Ce³⁺/(Ce³⁺ + Ce⁴⁺) are compiled in Table 1 and show the order of Ru₁/CeO₂ < Ni/CeO₂ < Ru₁Ni/CeO₂. More Ce⁴⁺ ions were reduced in Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ due to the H-spillover effect, which correlates well with the surface-adsorbed oxygen concentration in the materials. For Ni/CeO₂, the strong peaks at around 855.56 and 861.61 eV are related to the Ni²⁺ species, while the peak at 853.68 is assigned to Ni⁰ (Fig. 2c) [59]. The above peaks shift to low values of 854.83, 860.47, and 853.16 eV, respectively, in the spectrum of Ru₁Ni/CeO₂, which can be attributed to the higher electron-withdrawing capacity of Ni-Ru₁ dual-sites compared to the single-Ni sites of Ni/CeO₂, thus resulting in an increased electron density on the Ni sites. For the XPS of Ru 3d (Fig. S2), unfortunately, the

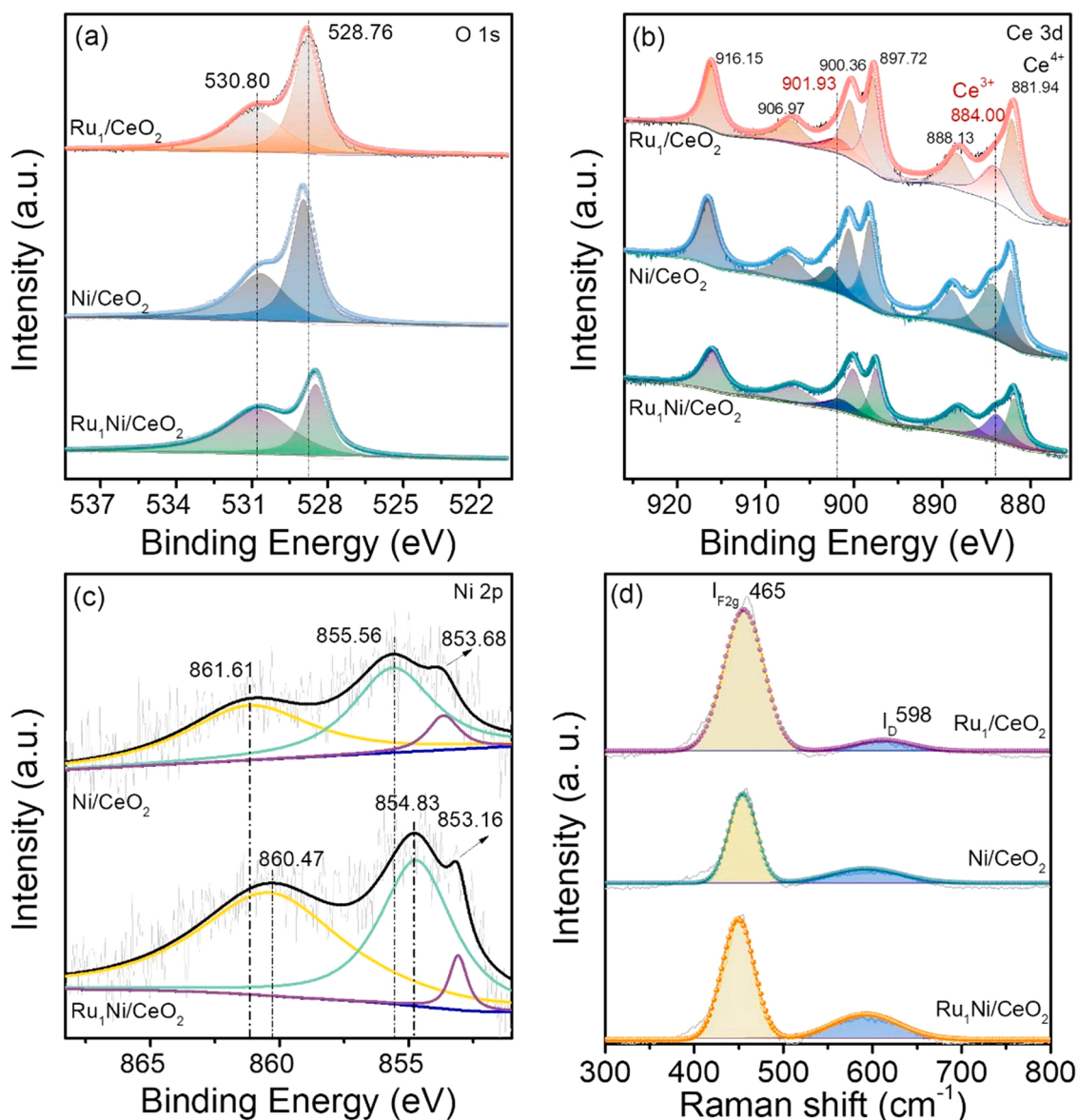


Fig. 2. XPS spectra: (a) O 1s, (b) Ce 3d, (c) Ni 2p, and (d) Raman spectra of all the catalysts.

signal was too weak to be detected, and also, there is an overlap between the C 1 s and Ru 3d peaks in the spectra of Ru_1/CeO_2 and $\text{Ru}_1\text{Ni}/\text{CeO}_2$, so the XPS peaks of Ru 3d could not be deconvoluted to analyze the Ru species in different oxidation states [11]. For the Raman signal of the catalysts, defective sites in the lattice lead to a D mode at 598 cm^{-1} , which represents a Frenkel-type oxygen vacancy resulting from the transfer of the oxygen anion from a tetrahedral site to an octahedral site, and an intrinsic F_{2g} mode at 465 cm^{-1} (Fig. 2d) [60,61]. Moreover, the oxygen vacancies revealed in the Raman spectrum are generated via repositioning oxygen ions, which are hardly affected by O_2 molecules at room temperature, so the content of oxygen vacancies can be more accurately calculated. Thus, the intensity ratios of $I_D/I_{F_{2g}}$ were calculated to reflect the concentration of oxygen vacancies (Table 1). $I_D/I_{F_{2g}}$ is 10.7% for Ru_1/CeO_2 , 39.1% for Ni/CeO_2 , and 44.8% for $\text{Ru}_1\text{Ni}/\text{CeO}_2$. $\text{Ru}_1\text{Ni}/\text{CeO}_2$ has the highest oxygen vacancy content, consistent with the XPS results. Previous studies have shown that surface oxygen vacancies can prevent the aggregation of Ru single atoms and are actively involved in the CO_2 methanation process [53,62].

3.1.3. TEM observation and XAS analysis

Fig. 3 shows AC HAADF-STEM images of Ru_1/CeO_2 and $\text{Ru}_1\text{Ni}/\text{CeO}_2$. Fig. 3a shows the presence of a clear lattice fringe with a spacing of 0.31 nm, which is indexed to the (111) plane of CeO_2 with high crystallinity [59]. Moreover, many bright dots attributed to Ru atoms are dispersed on the surface of CeO_2 (Fig. 3a and S3). For $\text{Ru}_1\text{Ni}/\text{CeO}_2$, the two-dimensional lattice fringe can be readily identified in Fig. 3b. The interplanar distances of 0.28 and 0.31 nm correspond to the CeO_2 (200) and (111) planes, respectively, and 0.20 nm belongs to Ni (111) [59]. The HAADF-STEM image in Fig. 3c shows that many Ru atoms and Ni nanoparticles are dispersed on the surface of CeO_2 nanorods. In addition, the corresponding EDX spectroscopy elemental mapping images show that there is no significant overlap between Ru and Ni (Fig. 3d–3d₂) and both of them are homogeneously dispersed on Ce (Fig. d₃) and O (Fig. d₄), indicating that Ru and Ni do not form alloy structures but present separately. Figs. 3e and 3f show the results of the extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) spectroscopy for all the catalysts. For Ru_1/CeO_2 and $\text{Ru}_1\text{Ni}/\text{CeO}_2$, the most noticeable scattering is observed at 1.5 \AA , ascribed to the coordination shell of

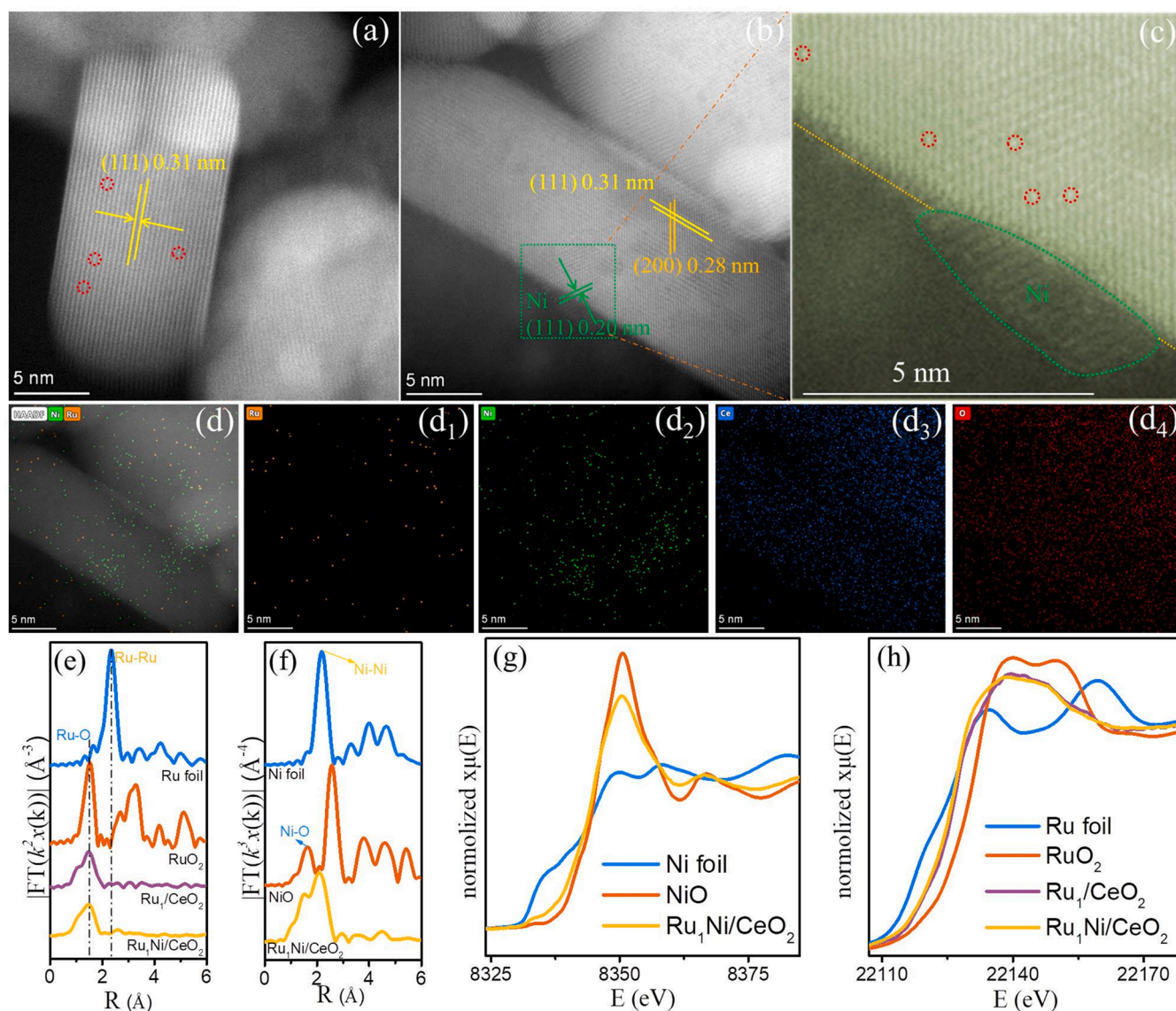


Fig. 3. AC-HAADF-STEM image of Ru_1/CeO_2 (a) and $\text{Ru}_1\text{Ni}/\text{CeO}_2$ (b), enlarged view (c) of the region marked with green box in (b), element EDX mapping layered image (d) and corresponding mapping images of Ru (d₁), Ni (d₂), Ce (d₃), and O (d₄) for $\text{Ru}_1\text{Ni}/\text{CeO}_2$. Fourier transforms magnitude of EXAFS spectra: (e) k^2 -weighted Ru K-edge for Ru_1/CeO_2 and $\text{Ru}_1\text{Ni}/\text{CeO}_2$, and (f) k^3 -weighted Ni K-edge for $\text{Ru}_1\text{Ni}/\text{CeO}_2$; and XANES profiles: (g) Ni K-edge for $\text{Ru}_1\text{Ni}/\text{CeO}_2$ and (h) Ru K-edge for Ru_1/CeO_2 and $\text{Ru}_1\text{Ni}/\text{CeO}_2$.

Ru–O. Their measured average coordination number (CN) of Ru–O for the two samples is 3.7 and 3.4 (Table S1), respectively. The Ru K-edge does not support the existence of the Ru–Ru structure, confirming the dominant isolated nature of the Ru species. These Ru atoms in Ru₁/CeO₂ and Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ should be available for chemical adsorption and subsequent reactions. For Ru₁Ni/CeO₂, in addition to the relatively weak peak at 1.5 Å assigned to Ni–O, a major peak at 2.1 Å that corresponds to the Ni–Ni coordination shell could be observed, indicating the presence of relatively large Ni nanoparticles (with a Ni–O CN of 2.4 and a Ni–Ni CN of 10.5) (Table S1), which is in good agreement with the AC-HADDF-STEM result. The X-ray absorption near edge structure (XANES) features of Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ falls between Ni foil and NiO (Fig. 3g). Moreover, the Ni adsorption edge of Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ is close to that of NiO. This indicates that the Ni species has a charge transfer to the CeO₂ and are in cationic states. In the Ru K-edge XANES profiles (Fig. 3h), the absorption edge position of Ru₁/CeO₂ and Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ were located between the Ru foil and RuO₂, showing the moderate average oxidation state of Ru.

3.2. Catalytic performance of catalysts

The CO₂ methanation catalytic performances of Ru₁/CeO₂, Ni/CeO₂, and Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ were investigated under 0.1 MPa and a high WHSV of 30000 mL g⁻¹ h⁻¹ (Fig. 4). Overall, the CO₂ conversion on Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ is obviously higher than that on Ru₁/CeO₂ and Ni/CeO₂, especially at low temperatures (225–325 °C), suggesting a tandem effect of Ru atoms and Ni particles on CO₂ methanation (Fig. 4a). Compared to Ni/CeO₂ and Ru₁Ni/CeO₂, Ru₁/CeO₂ exhibits a lower selectivity of approximately 30% for producing CH₄ and higher selectivity of ~70% for producing CO (Figs. 4b and 4c). Notably, the product distribution remained almost unchanged throughout the temperature interval (225–400 °C),

indicating that the Ru₁ site can only catalyze the conversion of CO₂ to CO. This is due to the weaker binding of CO on the Ru₁ site, which is more favorable for CO desorption. In addition, the CO₂ conversion, CH₄ selectivity, and CO selectivity on Ru₁/CeO₂ + Ni/CeO₂ are almost the same as those on Ni/CeO₂, and the CO₂ conversion is much lower than that on Ru₁Ni/CeO₂, indicating that CO generated on Ru₁/CeO₂ was hydrogenated to CH₄ on Ni/CeO₂, but its catalytic efficiency is lower than that of Ru₁Ni/CeO₂. Furthermore, Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ shows a higher CO₂ conversion than the Ru or Ni-based catalysts reported in the literature (Table S2) [57,63–67], even though a much higher space velocity in this work was used. Furthermore, the Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ shows the highest activity of 7.32 mol_{CO2} g⁻¹ h⁻¹ (Table S2), which is 7.6 times of the reported 10Ni–Ru–(CaO–Al₂O₃) [67] and 3 ~ 14 times of the reported Ni/CeO₂ catalysts [57,63,66]. The activation energies of CO₂ methanation on different catalysts were measured. The Arrhenius plots show that the activation energy has the order of Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ (52.54 kJ mol⁻¹) > Ru₁/CeO₂ (58.03 kJ mol⁻¹) > Ni/CeO₂ (79.64 kJ mol⁻¹), which is highly consistent with the trend of CO₂ methanation activity at atmospheric pressure (Fig. 4d). Interestingly for Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ and Ru₁/CeO₂, the similar activation energy suggests that the same reaction mechanism may occur for CO₂ activation on both catalysts. In contrast, Ni/CeO₂ shows a high activation energy, indicating a different CO₂ activation mechanism. In addition, Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ and Ru₁/CeO₂ have similar apparent activation energies, suggesting that the same reaction mechanism may occur for CO₂ activation by both catalysts.

The performance and structural stability of the catalyst are critical to the catalyst. Regarding the catalytic stability, Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ showed > 99% selectivity for CH₄ and only a < 5% CO₂ conversion loss after a 100 h reaction at 300 °C (Fig. 4e). Probably, the 5% CO₂ conversion loss is caused by the aggregation of a small number of tiny Ni particles that have weak interactions with CeO₂. In addition, no XRD diffraction peaks

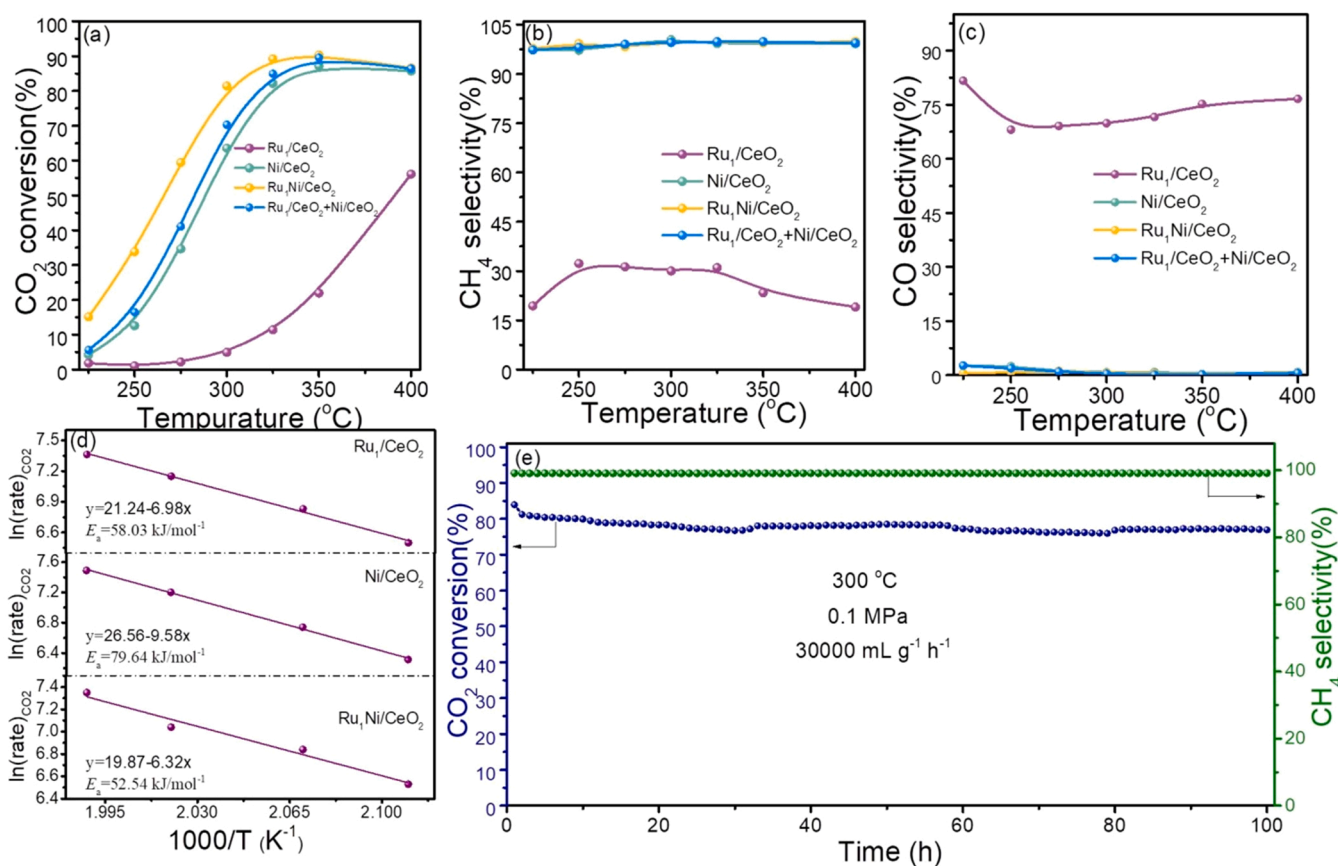


Fig. 4. Catalytic performance of all the catalysts: (a) CO₂ conversion, (b) CH₄ selectivity, (c) CO selectivity, and (d) Arrhenius plot; and (e) lifetime test of Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ at 300 °C.

of Ni and Ru in Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ were detected after the long-term stability test (Fig. S4), indicating that this catalyst had good stability. The measured high-resolution transmission electron microscope (HRTEM) images of Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ after the long-term test show that the Ni nanoparticle sizes are 3–4 nm (Fig. S5a), similar to that of the fresh catalyst (Fig. 3b). The EDX element mappings further validate that Ru and Ni are uniformly distributed on the CeO_x support without aggregation (Fig. S5b–S5i). In addition, the measured AC-HAADF-STEM images show that the Ru still maintains the single-atom dispersion state in Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ after the lifetime test (Fig. S6). The amount of carbon deposition on the spent catalyst after the long-term test was further measured by TG analysis, and the results are presented in Fig. S7. The weight loss curves can be divided into two parts. The first weight loss process that occurred below 200 °C belongs to the removal of the physically adsorbed water; while the second weight loss process between 200 and 330 °C is attributed to the release of CO₂, derived from the decomposition of CO₃²⁻ ions and the removal of hydroxyl groups [10]. The weight increase observed at 330–350 °C is attributed to the oxidation of Ni⁰ [68], and no further weight loss is observed between 350 and 800 °C, indicating almost no carbon deposition on the spent catalyst.

3.3. Catalytic mechanism

3.3.1. In situ DRIFTS analysis

Figs. 5a–5c show the in situ diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (In situ DRIFTS) spectra of the three catalysts measured in the reaction gas (18%CO₂/72%H₂/N₂) and the temperature range from 50 to 350 °C. For Ni/CeO₂ (Fig. 5a), the surface species of bicarbonates (1640 cm⁻¹), polydentate carbonates (1428 cm⁻¹), and monodentate carbonates (1509 cm⁻¹) were observed at different temperatures, and these peak intensities increased with temperature [69]. At temperatures above 200 °C, the bands of CO* (2022 and 1902 cm⁻¹), *CHO (1746 cm⁻¹), and CH₄ (3016 cm⁻¹) appeared [70–72]. Simultaneously, the bands of HCOO* (2842 and 1349 cm⁻¹) and carboxylate (1270 cm⁻¹) gradually decreased [73,74], indicating that CO*, *CHO, and CH₄ were mainly produced by HCOO* hydrogenation. In other words, the HCOO* reaction pathway for CO₂ methanation did occur on Ni/CeO₂. In addition, when the gas was changed to H₂ at 350 °C, bicarbonates gradually decreased due to quick conversion to HCOO*. *CHO, HCOO*, and also, carboxylate gradually disappeared (Fig. 5b). Thus, these intermediates are active species. On Ru₁/CeO₂ (Fig. 5c), the

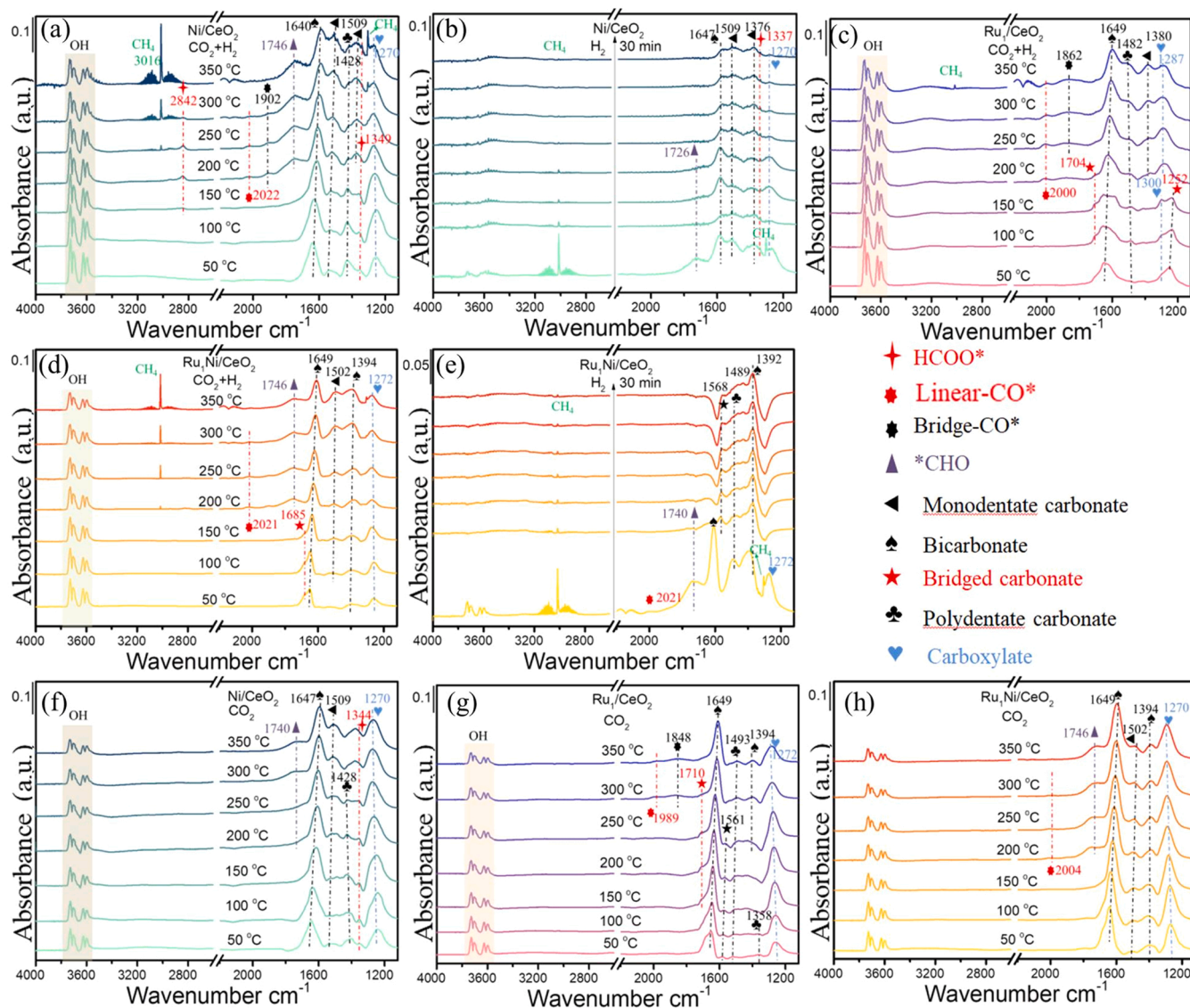


Fig. 5. In situ DRIFTS results on Ni/CeO₂ by introducing continuous flow of reaction gas 36% H₂/9% CO₂/Ar (a) and switching to gas 10% H₂/Ar (b); In situ DRIFTS results of CO₂ hydrogenation on Ru₁/CeO₂ (c) and Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ (d), and switching to gas 10% H₂/Ar on Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ (e); In situ DRIFTS results measured within the inlet gas 1% CO₂/He: Ni/CeO₂ (f), Ru₁/CeO₂ (g), and Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ (h).

typical adsorption species of CO₂ during methanation were bicarbonate (1394 cm⁻¹), monodentate (1380 cm⁻¹), carboxylate (1287 and 1300 cm⁻¹), and polydentate carbonates (1482 cm⁻¹). The two bands at 1704 and 1252 cm⁻¹, assigned to the bridged carbonates, disappeared at 200 °C. At the same time, the bands of linear-CO* (2000 cm⁻¹) [75] and bridge-CO* (1704 cm⁻¹) [71] appeared and did not significantly change with increasing temperature. A weak band of CH₄ at 3016 cm⁻¹ could not be observed until 350 °C. The above results indicate that CO₂ can be rapidly converted to CO* on Ru₁/CeO₂, but the weak binding of CO* to Ru prevents further hydrogenation; thus, the gas phase CO is the final product. In short, the CO pathway for CO₂ methanation occurs on Ru₁/CeO₂, and the direct CO₂ dissociation forms CO*. For Ru₁Ni/CeO₂, the bands of CO*, *CHO, and CH₄ appeared from 200 °C, and the band of CO* reached the maximum intensity at 250 °C, then it decreased. In addition, the intensities of the CH₄ bands were much stronger than those for the Ru₁/CeO₂ catalyst, indicating that the catalyst with the Ni sites can further transform CO* into CH₄. The reaction pathways of CO₂ methanation over Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ included the additional transformation from CO* (2021 cm⁻¹) to *CHO (1746 cm⁻¹) (Fig. 5d) compared to Ru₁/CeO₂. After the gas flow was switched to H₂, CO*, bicarbonate, carboxylate, and *CHO quickly disappeared within 5 min (Fig. 5e). After 10 min, the band of bidentate carbonate appeared, reached its maximum strength at 15 min, and then decreased. According to the above results, adding Ni nanoparticles did not change the CO* reaction pathway of CO₂ methanation compared to Ru₁/CeO₂.

The in situ FTIR spectra for CO₂ adsorption measured at different temperatures are shown in Fig. 5f-h. For Ni/CeO₂ (Fig. 5f), the bands of the adsorbed *CHO (1740 cm⁻¹) and HCOO* (1344 cm⁻¹) species can be found in spectra [76]. In addition, the transient in situ FTIR spectra of CO₂ adsorption was recorded at 250 °C on Ni/CeO₂ (Fig. S8a). The band intensities of *CHO and HCOO* increase with time, but that of HCOO* increases more rapidly because the conversion of HCOO* to *CHO is the rate-determining step of the reaction. For Ru₁/CeO₂ (Fig. 5g), the active intermediate is only CO*, and no bands of *CHO are found with increasing temperature. After switching the gas to 10% H₂/Ar, the linear-CO* is disappeared, and the bridge-CO* is still observed (Fig. S8b). This result indicates that the linear-CO* adsorbed on the Ru single atoms is the active species, while the

bridge-CO* adsorbed on CeO₂ is not, consistent with previously published literature [11]. For Ru₁Ni/CeO₂, the linear-CO* is observed in the inlet gas of CO₂, accompanied by the appearing band assigned to *CHO (Fig. 5h). Furthermore, the in situ FTIR spectra of CO* and *CHO on Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ were recorded at 200 °C with increasing time (Fig. S8c). Interestingly, the intensity of *CHO over Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ is markedly higher than that of Ni/CeO₂, which further proves the superior CO₂ activation properties of Ru₁Ni/CeO₂.

3.3.2. DFT results

To investigate and compare the roles of the Ru single atom and Ni cluster, we first calculated the adsorptions of CO and CO₂ at the surface oxygen vacancy sites near the Ru single atom or Ni cluster by the density functional theory (DFT) method (Fig. 6). As shown in Figs. 6a and 6b, the adsorption energy of CO₂ is -1.93 on Ru₁/CeO₂ and -1.22–1.22 eV on Ni/CeO₂, respectively, indicating that the CO₂ molecules are more inclined to adsorb on the oxygen vacancies that are formed near the Ru single atom compared to the Ni cluster. Furthermore, the adsorption energy of CO on the Ru single atom (Fig. 6c) is -0.78 eV, lower than that on the Ni cluster (Fig. 6d, -2.11 eV), meaning that the formed CO molecules on the Ru single atom are prone to desorb and re-adsorb on the Ni cluster.

Based on the above adsorption calculation results, the possible elementary reactions of CO and CO₂ were calculated (Fig. 7). Figs. 7a and 7b show that CO formation on the oxygen vacancy near the Ru single atom and Ni cluster needs to overcome the energy barrier of 0.78 eV and 0.94 eV, respectively. And the lower value indicates that this elementary reaction can occur more easily. After that, the possible reaction paths (CO* → C* + O*, CO* + H* → *CHO, CO* + H* → COH*) on Ni were explored. Forming the C* and *CHO intermediates is more favorable than the COH* intermediate (Figs. 7c–7e), and its energy input is much lower than the energy needed to form *CHO on Ru single atom (Fig. S9), in agreement with the in situ FTIR results. Therefore, we believe that the Ru single atom and Ni cluster play an important role in the CO* → C* + O* and CO* + H* → *CHO routes. For Ni/CeO₂ (Fig. 7f), CO₂ molecules are hydrogenated to HCOO* by overcoming an energy barrier of 1.74 eV, much higher than that of the CO* + H* → *CHO route (1.58 eV). This result reveals that Ru₁Ni/CeO₂ with Ru

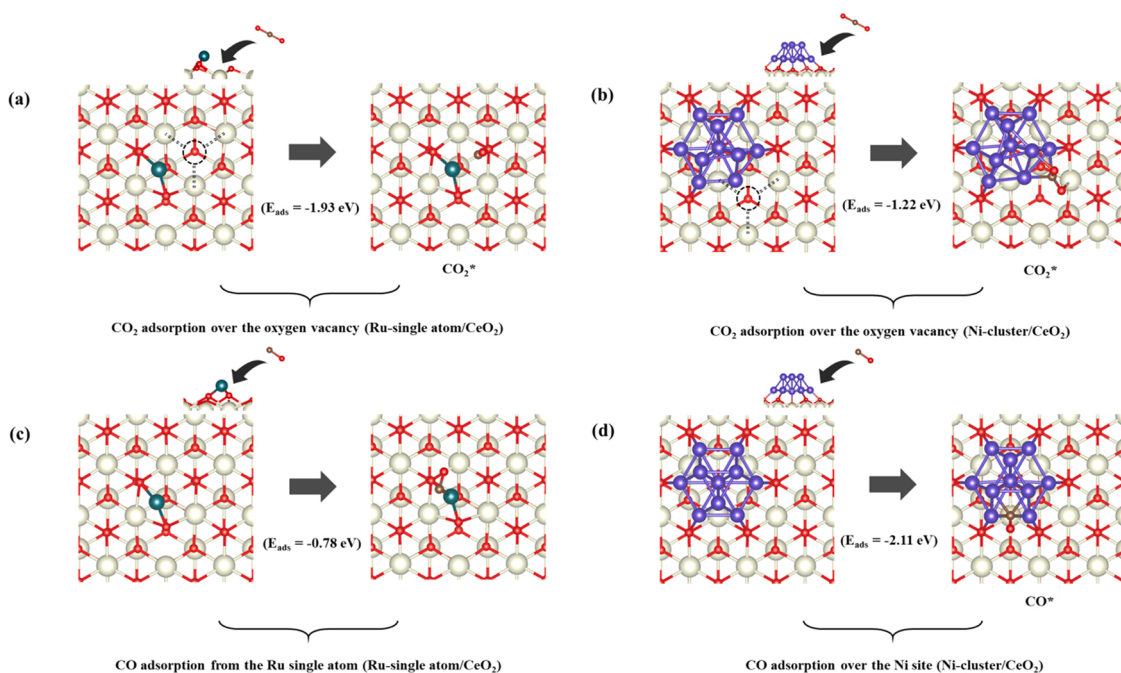


Fig. 6. The adsorption of CO₂ and CO on the different active sites: CO₂ adsorb on the oxygen vacancy near Ru single atom (a) and Ni cluster (b); CO adsorb on the Ru single atom (c) and Ni cluster (d).

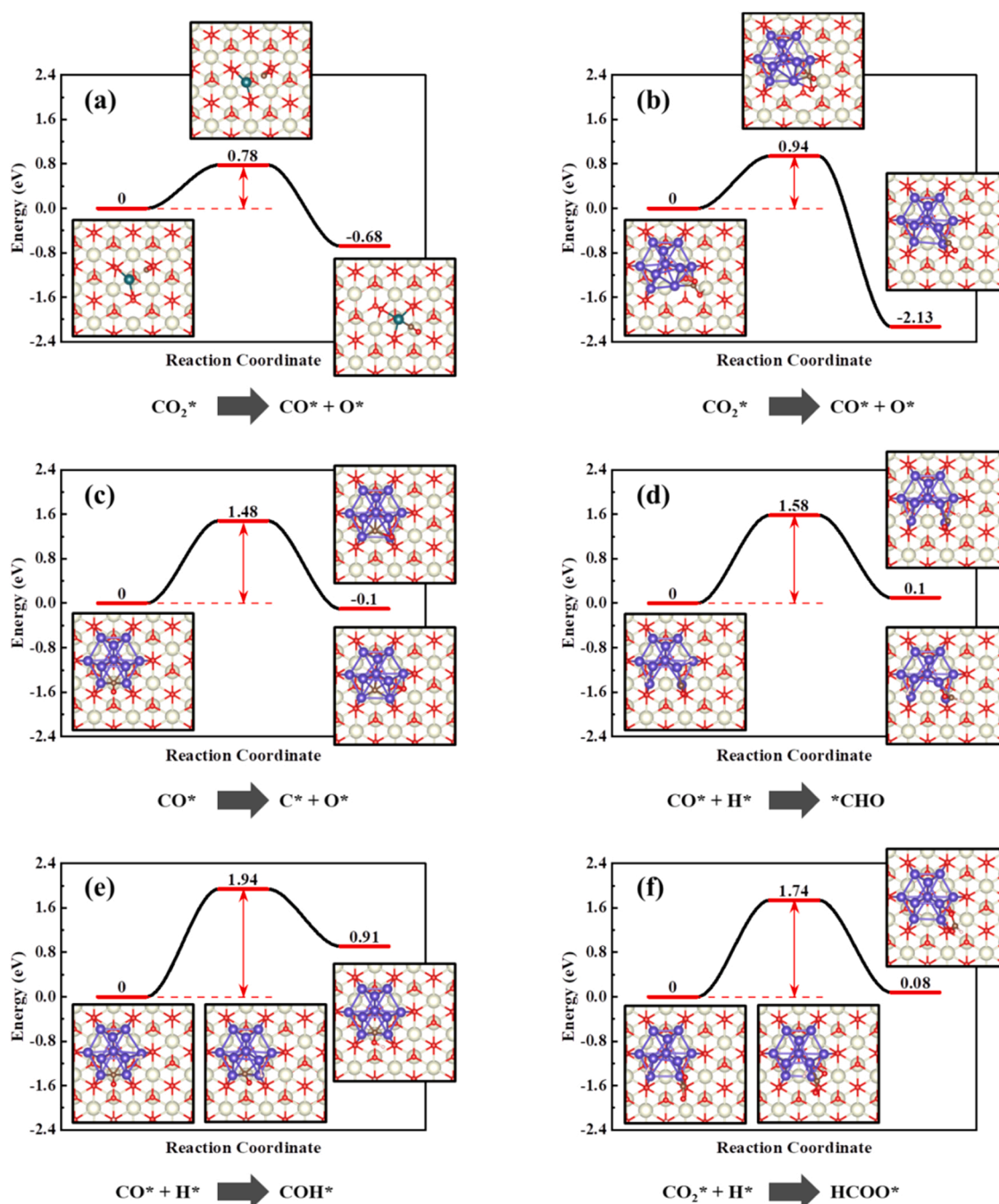


Fig. 7. The calculated energy profiles of different reaction routes. $\text{CO}_2^* \rightarrow \text{CO}^* + \text{O}^*$ on the oxygen vacancy near the Ru single atom (a) and Ni cluster (b); $\text{CO}^* \rightarrow \text{C}^* + \text{O}^*$ (c), $\text{CO}^* + \text{H}^* \rightarrow \text{CHO}^*$ (d), $\text{CO}^* + \text{H}^* \rightarrow \text{COH}^*$ (e), and $\text{CO}_2^* + \text{H}^* \rightarrow \text{HCOO}^*$ (f) on the Ni cluster.

single atom and Ni cluster significantly promotes the formation of $^*\text{CHO}$, resulting in a much-increased CO_2 methanation reaction rate.

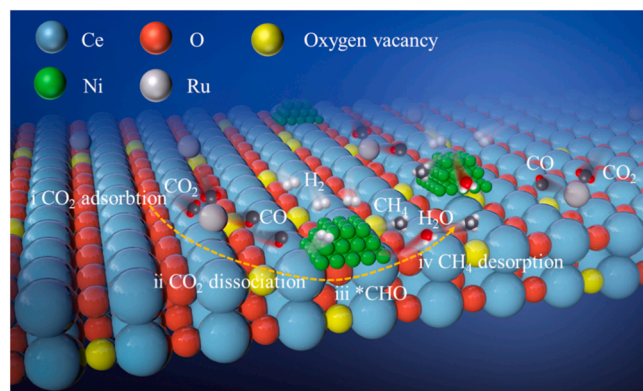
3.3.3. Proposed catalytic mechanism on $\text{Ru}_1\text{Ni}/\text{CeO}_2$

In contrast to the $\text{Ru}_1/\text{CeO}_2 + \text{Ni}/\text{CeO}_2$ mixed catalyst, we demonstrated that the $\text{Ru}_1\text{Ni}/\text{CeO}_2$ catalyst containing two active sites (Ru_1 and Ni) is the best tandem catalyst for the CO_2 methanation reaction. This is due to the short distance between Ru_1 and Ni with competitive adsorption leading to the preferential dissociation of CO_2 to CO on the Ru_1 site. The mechanism of CO_2 methanation on $\text{Ru}_1\text{Ni}/\text{CeO}_2$ is proposed based on our experimental and DFT calculation results (Scheme 1): first, CO_2 is dissociated to CO on Ru single atom, after which CO hydrogenation to $^*\text{CHO}$ is accelerated on Ni, and finally, $^*\text{CHO}$ is

transformed to CH_4 at the Ni site. In summary, this cascade reaction mode catalyzed by the dual active sites in $\text{Ru}_1\text{Ni}/\text{CeO}_2$ catalyst ensures high catalytic performance in the CO_2 methanation reaction.

4. Conclusions

The $\text{Ru}_1\text{Ni}/\text{CeO}_2$ catalyst with isolated Ru_1 sites and Ni nanoparticles shows much better catalytic performance in CO_2 methanation than Ru_1/CeO_2 (Ru single atom catalyst) and Ni/CeO_2 (Ni nanoparticle catalyst). Experimental and theoretical calculation results confirm that the two types of active sites (Ru_1 and Ni) in the $\text{Ru}_1\text{Ni}/\text{CeO}_2$ catalyst synergistically catalyze the reaction, in which the Ru_1 sites convert CO_2 into CO more effectively, whereas the Ni sites are mainly responsible for the



Scheme 1. Schematic illustration of CO₂ conversion to CH₄ accelerated by different reactive sites (Ru₁ and Ni).

hydrogenation of CO to CH₄. Therefore, the coexistence of the Ru and Ni sites significantly boosts the reaction as compared with their single active component catalysts. Also, the stepwise hydrogenation of CO₂ to CH₄ at different active sites is clarified experimentally and theoretically well. The reported tandem catalysts demonstrate the high possibility of boosting both the CO₂ activation and product selectivity by one catalyst.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Tengfei Zhang: Methodology, Validation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Data curation, Writing – original draft, Visualization. **Peng Zheng:** Methodology, Software, Data curation. **Fangna Gu:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing – review & editing, Visualization, Supervision, Project administration. **Wenqing Xu:** Methodology, Writing – review & editing, Visualization. **Wenxing Chen:** Writing – review & editing. **Tingyu Zhu:** Writing – review & editing. **Yi-Fan Han:** Writing – review & editing. **Guangwen Xu:** Writing – review & editing. **Ziyi Zhong:** Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition. **Fabing Su:** Writing – review & editing, Visualization, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data Availability

Data will be made available on request.

Acknowledgments

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Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at [doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2022.122190](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2022.122190).

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